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ABSTRACT

A Compensation Model is proposed to help explain the difference between child and adult language acquisition in terms of different cognitive modules and theories. In this model, two assumptions are made: (1) existence of two different cognitive modules (language-specific and general-cognition) in the mind, and (2) the independent and interactive roles of these two modules, each responsible for each aspect of learning, with the higher level compensating for the lower. The model is descriptive in that it incorporates findings reported in current second-language research, and explanatory in that it explains the logical and developmental problems of child and adult language acquisition. In addition, it is predictive because it can predict why children are better language learners than adults in terms of ultimate attainment, why native language and language learning strategies play critical roles in adult rather than child language acquisition, and why there are variables degrees of attainment in adult language acquisition. Contains 69 references. (MSE)

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The Compensation Model

GI-PYO PARK

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The Compensation Model

GI-PYO PARK

This paper proposes *The Compensation Model*, which helps explain the difference between child and adult language acquisition in terms of different cognitive modules and theories. Maturational constraints and the availability of negative input in adult L2 acquisition are presented as evidence in support of this change in the cognitive modules and theories. Two explanatory goals and four explanatory powers of this model are presented in this paper.

INTRODUCTION

Even though forty to sixty models or hypotheses have been proposed in the domain of second language (L2) acquisition (Long, 1993), no theory of L2 acquisition exists at the present time, leaving this domain as an immature science.[1]

One reason for the lack of a theory of L2 acquisition is that the phenomena of L2 acquisition may be too complex to be explained by a single theory (Beretta, 1991; see also Long, 1993; Spolsky, 1989; Huebner, 1988). In order to avoid this dilemma, researchers have suggested what a theory of L2 acquisition should minimally consider or be able to explain (Birdsong, in press; Gregg, in press; Long, 1990a). According to Birdsong (in press), three areas of L2 acquisition research--knowledge of Universal Grammar (UG), ultimate attainment in L2 acquisition, and cognitive views on L2 acquisition--have the potential for developing a theory of L2 acquisition. Gregg (in press; see also Wolfe-Quintero, 1992; Felix, 1984), on the other hand, argues that the explanatory goals of L2 acquisition theory should be the logical problem, that is, "how is acquisition possible?" and the developmental problem, that is, "how does acquisition proceed?"[2]

Among the forty to sixty models/hypotheses, *The Competition Model* (Felix, 1985) and *The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis* (Bley-Vroman, 1989) deal with the difference between child and adult language acquisition in terms of cognition. *The Competition Model* attempts to explain why children are, ultimately, better language learners than adults in terms of two different cognitive modules--the language-specific module (UG) and the general problem-solving module--operating in child and adult language

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[1]Long (1993) argues that the terms theories, models, perspectives, metaphors, hypotheses, and theoretical claims are all used in free variation (see also Gregg, 1989). Considering that a good theory should guide and stimulate "the ongoing process of scientific inquiry" (McLaughlin, 1987, p. 16), the monitor model (Krashen, 1981), among the forty to sixty models or hypotheses proposed so far, can be considered a good theory in that this model has stimulated intensive L2 acquisition research. However, the monitor model has been criticized from many perspectives (see McLaughlin, 1987; White, 1987; Gregg, 1984).

[2]Gregg (in press, 1993, 1990) further argues that the explananda, that is, the phenomena to be explained, of L2 acquisition theory are not performance or proficiency but competence. Responding to Gregg's paper (1990), however, Ellis (1990) argues that theories should be context-dependent and purposeful, and that proficiency, not competence, should be a central concern of theories for educationalists.

acquisition. According to this model, in adult language acquisition, the general problem-solving module, which develops with age, competes with the language-specific module, which is innate and guides child language acquisition, and this is why children are better language learners than adults in ultimate attainment. This model, however, fails to explain why adults rely on the general problem-solving module if the language-specific module is intact and why the two cognitive modules compete with each other rather than cooperate.

The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis attempts to explain the difference between child language development and adult language learning. According to this hypothesis, UG and domain-specific learning procedures are in charge of child language development. In adult foreign language learning, however, native language knowledge takes the place of UG, and general problem-solving systems take the place of domain-specific learning procedures. These fundamental changes happen because UG and the domain-specific learning procedures are not accessible in adult language learning. The problems of this hypothesis are that it does not mention further how L1 and problem-solving systems operate in adult language learning, and it ignores cases where adult language learners acquire L2 parameter values which cannot be explained by the parameter values of the native language.

The Compensation Model attempts to explain the logical and developmental problems of language acquisition in the continuum from childhood to adulthood. Thus, like *The Competition Model* and *The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis*, a distinction is made between child and adult language acquisition rather than between L1 and L2 acquisition.[3] Two assumptions are made in *The Compensation Model*. The first is the existence of two different cognitive modules--language-specific and general cognition--in the mind (White, 1989; Cook, 1988; Fodor, 1983).[4] Another assumption of this model is the independent and interactive roles of these cognitive modules. The cognitive modules are independent of each other, in that each module is responsible for each aspect of learning, and interactive, in that the higher level of cognitive module, if necessary, compensates for the lower level of cognitive module (see Bley-Vroman, 1989; Schachter, 1988; Clahsen & Muysken, 1986; Felix, 1985).

This model is descriptive in that it incorporates the findings reported in current L2 acquisition research, and explanatory in that it explains the logical and developmental problems of child and adult language acquisition. In addition, the model is predictive because it can predict why children are better language learners than adults in terms of ultimate attainment, why native language and language learning strategies play critical roles in adult rather than child language acquisition, and why there are variable degrees of attainment in adult language acquisition.

LANGUAGE-SPECIFIC COGNITION AND CHILD LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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[3]Despite the distinction made between child and adult language acquisition rather than between L1 and L2 acquisition, the main interest of this paper is in child or adult L2 acquisition rather than in child or adult L1 acquisition. Thus, here child and adult language acquisition mainly refers to child and adult L2 acquisition.

[4]Other researchers view the mind as a single unitary system rather than several separate systems (Anderson, 1985). Cognitive modules refer to separate systems of the mind (see Cook, 1988).

Language-specific cognition is cognition which is designed for processing linguistic input only, and mainly consists of knowledge of UG and language learning principles. In *The Compensation Model*, UG is responsible for resolving the logical problem, and language learning principles take charge of the developmental problem of child language acquisition.

Knowledge of UG

Native speakers have intuitive knowledge that some of the following sentences are not acceptable.

1. The man who is tall is Park.
   Is the man who is tall Park?
   *Is the man who tall is Park?
2. Who do you want to win the play?
   *Who do you wanna win the play?

This intuitive knowledge of native speakers is assumed to be attained uniformly around by the age of five (Chomsky, 1981), and this assumption has been tested in several studies. For instance, Crain and Nakayama (1987) and Crain and Thornton (1988) report that children between the ages of three and five have syntactic knowledge of structure dependency and wanna-contraction.

How do children at age five uniformly acquire this abstract linguistic knowledge? It could be accounted for by the input they get through their language learning experience. Interestingly enough, however, the input children get is too underdetermined and degenerated to explain their linguistic knowledge, and furthermore it is positive only (White, 1989; Pinker, 1989 & 1984). This "poverty of stimulus" argument is well expressed by Chomsky (1986): "our knowledge is richly articulated . . . whereas the data available are much too impoverished to determine it by any general procedure of induction, generalization, analogy, association, or whatever" (p. 55).

Thus, the "poverty of stimulus" in child language acquisition suggests that the linguistic knowledge children ultimately attain goes beyond the input they get. The gap between this available input and attained linguistic knowledge is called the logical or Plato's problem of language acquisition (Chomsky, 1986; Baker & McCarthy, 1981; Hornstein & Lightfoot, 1981). One possible solution to this problem is to attribute child language acquisition to such cognitive procedures as induction, inference, or language learning strategies. Considering the cognitive development of children, however, this solution does not seem possible.[5] Another possible solution to this problem is that the gap is bridged by an innate language learning system called Universal Grammar (UG), which is defined as "the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements or properties of all human languages" (Chomsky, 1976, p. 29).[6]

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[5]Piaget (1962) contends that (general) cognition develops with age specifically through four consecutive stages: the sensory-motor stage, the pre-operational stage, the stage of concrete operations, and the stage of formal operations. According to this theory, children at age five belong to the stage of concrete operations, at which stage children cannot deal with such abstract linguistic knowledge as structure dependency and wanna-contraction (see also Felix, 1985 & 1981).

[6]Even though Chomsky contends that UG is interchangeable with the language acquisition device (LAD) (Chomsky, 1986 & 1981), other researchers

According to the theory of parameter-setting, language acquisition is the process of applying innate knowledge of UG, such as structure dependency and the subjacency principle, to a particular language, and setting the parameter values of the language. In order to set parameter values, two elements--primary linguistic input (data) to trigger UG and language learning mechanisms to analyze and interpret the input--are required. Language acquisition is, thus, the result of the interaction between UG and primary linguistic input through language learning mechanisms for the manipulation of the input.

UG is so powerful that children uniformly acquire their native, a second, or a third language despite their limited ability to analyze abstract linguistic knowledge, and independent of individual and situational differences. Two language learning principles, the subset principle and the uniqueness principle, have been discussed in the literature as language learning mechanisms for child language acquisition.

Language Learning Principles

The logical problem of child language acquisition, that is, "how is acquisition possible?" has been explained by the innate knowledge of UG. Next concern is the developmental problem of child language acquisition, that is, "how does acquisition proceed?"

As noted briefly in the above section, the input children obtain is positive only. In other words, they do not get negative input in the environment. According to Pinker (1989 & 1984), negative input is not available to children, nor do they need negative input for language acquisition. Our logical question is how children can proceed with positive input only. This question has been answered within the context of two language learning principles: the subset principle and the uniqueness principle.

The subset principle is a learner's ability to make the most conservative hypothesis consistent with the input (Gregg, in press; White, 1989; Berwick, 1985). Since the subset principle operates in child language acquisition, children make only limited overgeneralized rules, allowing them to acquire L1 or L2 with positive input only. The uniqueness principle, on the other hand, is a learner's ability to make only one syntactic form with a particular semantic concept (Gregg, in press; White, 1989; Berwick, 1985). The role of the uniqueness principle is to preempt overgeneralized grammars consistent with the input. Since innate knowledge of UG and language learning principles are understood to constrain grammars in child language acquisition, children make only limited overgeneralizations and preempt the overgeneralizations they make by the positive input.

In sum, child language acquisition is explained by the theory of parameter-setting in language-specific cognition which mainly consists of knowledge of UG and language learning principles. UG resolves the logical problem, and language learning principles take charge of the developmental problem of child language acquisition. Thus, child language acquisition can be schematized as Figure 1.

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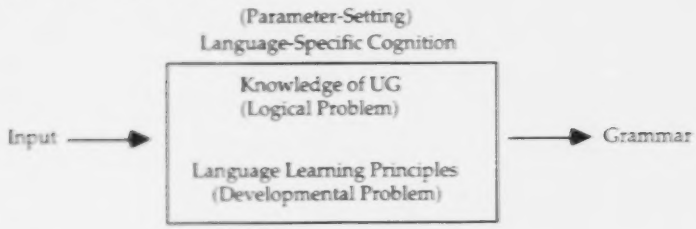
distinguish UG and the LAD (Hilles, 1991; see also Gregg, in press; White, 1989; Berwick, 1985). The author assumes that LAD may include UG and language learning principles.

Figure 1. Child Language Acquisition



THE ACCESSIBILITY OF LANGUAGE-SPECIFIC COGNITION IN ADULT LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Since knowledge of UG and language learning principles are in charge of resolving the logical and developmental problems of child language acquisition, our next logical question is the accessibility of UG and language learning principles in adult language acquisition. The accessibility of UG and language learning principles to adult language learners is discussed in terms of maturational constraints and the availability of negative input in adult L2 acquisition.

Maturational Constraints on Adult L2 Acquisition.

Assuming that UG contributes to the uniform success of child language acquisition, whether UG is accessible to adult language acquisition is a central issue for L2 acquisition research. The potential accessibility of UG to adult L2 acquisition has been raised theoretically (White, 1989; Cook, 1988; Sharwood Smith, 1988). Cook (1988) describes three possibilities regarding the accessibility of UG in adult L2 acquisition: (1) direct access to UG in which L2 learners use the principles of UG without reference to L1 values, (2) indirect access to UG in which L2 learners use the principles of UG via L1, and (3) no access to UG in which L1 competence is distinct from L2 competence.

Considering the on-going controversies regarding the accessibility of UG in adult L2 acquisition on an empirical level (Birdsong, 1992; Schwarts, 1992; Johnson & Newport, 1991; White, 1990; Schachter, 1989; Bley-Vroman et al., 1988; Flynn, 1987; Clahsen & Muysken, 1986), conceptual discussion may be more appropriate than empirical discussion at this time.

As noted above, knowledge of UG combined with language learning principles is responsible for child language acquisition, and is so powerful that normal children uniformly reach ultimate attainment independent of input, language learning strategies, and other individual and situational differences. Adult L2 learners, however, show variable degrees of attainment. Furthermore, only a few adult L2 learners, if any, acquire native competence (Ioup et al, 1994; Birdsong, 1992; see also White, in press), and most adult L2 learners show general failure (Bley-Vroman, 1989; Schachter, 1988), leading to the proposal of a critical/sensitive period or maturational constraints on L2 acquisition.

It is now a popular idea that there are maturational constraints on both L1 and L2 acquisition. Thus, the accessibility of UG in adult L2 acquisition has been discussed using the notion of maturational constraints (Birdsong, 1991; Flynn & Manuel, 1991; see

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also Long, 1990b). That is, if UG is still accessible to L2 learners independent of age, adult language learners, like child language learners, should show uniform success independent of input, language learning strategies, and other individual and situational variables. Thus, the idea of maturational constraints on L2 acquisition suggests that UG may not be accessible to adult L2 learners. In this regard, Hess (1964) reported that "behaviors learned traditionally during a critical period, can be learned after the close of the critical period, but via alternate routes" (reported in Rosansky, 1975, p. 93).

Thus, as several researchers indicate, knowledge of UG may deteriorate with age, and other types of knowledge compensate for the deterioration of UG in adult language acquisition (Bley-Vroman, 1989; Schachter, 1988; Clahsen & Muysken, 1986).

Negative Input in Adult L2 Acquisition

As was already pointed out, researchers contend that negative input is not necessary, nor is it available in child language acquisition (Pinker, 1989 & 1984; Wexler & Culicover, 1980). Assuming this position, whether negative input, including instruction, is available and/or necessary in adult L2 acquisition has been a hot issue, but the results are somewhat controversial among researchers.

Long (1983) argues that formal instruction does work in both adult and child L2 acquisition. Bley-Vroman (1986) also contends that adult L2 learners need negative input for disconfirming interlanguage hypotheses. However, Schumann (1978) reports that even though instruction works in adult L2 acquisition for a time, adult L2 learners show fossilization in the long run. In a similar vein, Gregg (in press) contends that even if negative input is available in adult L2 acquisition, it is still an open question whether or how much negative input helps learners set parameter values of the target language. In a comprehensive report on the issue of negative input, Birdsong (1989) concludes that even though the role of negative input is limited in adult L2 acquisition, adult L2 learners do need negative input for disconfirming ill-formed interlanguage hypotheses. He further contends that appropriate use of negative input leads to a more efficient approach to L2 acquisition.

Whether or not negative input is beneficial to adult L2 learners in the long run and whether or not negative input works in parameter-setting, the contention here is that adult language learners, compared with child language learners, do make many overgeneralized hypotheses in L2 acquisition. In the previous section, the author argued that child language learners are able to acquire their L1 and L2 with positive input only, and that this is because UG and language learning principles constrain the grammars of child language learners. Therefore, the overgeneralized hypotheses made by adult language learners suggest that knowledge of UG and language learning principles may deteriorate with age, and thus do not operate in adult language acquisition.

GENERAL COGNITION AND ADULT LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Compared to language-specific cognition which processes linguistic input only, general cognition deals with input (information) from various fields such as math and science as well as with linguistic input. General cognition consists of previous knowledge, problem-solving abilities, beliefs, motivation, learning strategies, etc.[7]

[7]Compared to the language-specific cognitive module which is based on linguistics, the general cognitive module, which is based on cognitive psychology,

Among these sub-domains of general cognition, two sub-domains, knowledge of the L1 and language learning strategies, play critical roles in adult L2 acquisition. In *The Compensation Model*, knowledge of the L1 is responsible for resolving the logical problem, and language learning strategies take charge of the developmental problem of adult language acquisition.

Knowledge of the L1

Knowledge of UG is responsible for resolving the logical problem of child language acquisition. Interestingly, however, even though UG may deteriorate with age, there is a logical problem of adult L2 acquisition as well (White, 1990; Bley-Vroman, 1989). That is, some adult L2 learners acquire abstract knowledge of the L2 by input which is underdetermined and degenerated. Thus, adult language learners, like child language learners, go beyond the input they get. The question is, if UG is not accessible to adult language learners, how is the logical problem of adult L2 acquisition solved? Even though UG is not accessible to adult language learners, they do have knowledge of the L1 as previous knowledge, into which much of their knowledge of UG is transformed. In this sense, adult L2 learners have much of the knowledge of UG through knowledge of the L1, and knowledge of the L1 is responsible for resolving the logical problem of adult language acquisition.

Even though knowledge of UG is accessible to adult L2 learners through knowledge of the L1, adult L2 acquisition cannot be explained by parameter-setting. This is because language learning principles as language learning mechanisms are not accessible to adult L2 acquisition. As was noted above, knowledge of UG alone cannot explain language acquisition by the theory of parameter-setting. Learning mechanisms are required as well for the interpretation and analysis of input. This blocking of parameter-setting in adult L2 acquisition leads adult L2 learners to rely on information-processing.

Acquisition through information-processing is quite different from acquisition through parameter-setting. The former involves previous knowledge and other individual and situational variables, whereas the latter occurs instantaneously independent of individual and situational variables. Adult language learners learn, rather than set, the parameter values of the L2 through both deductive and inductive processing. When the parameter values of the L2 are identical to those of the L1, much learning may occur through deductive processing based on the fixed parameter values of the L1. When the parameter values of the L2 are different from those of the L1, however, learning may occur through inductive processing.

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consists of many sub-domains such as L1 as previous knowledge, memory, beliefs, problem-solving abilities, motivation, learning strategies, etc. Since all these sub-domains play key roles in adult L2 acquisition, finding causative variables in adult L2 acquisition seems overwhelming at this time. Researchers oriented in linguistics have attempted to explain L2 acquisition phenomena by simplifying the rules (Miller, 1990). However, psychology-oriented researchers have tried to explain L2 acquisition phenomena by finding learning processes or by finding (causative) variables affecting L2 acquisition. Yet, to date, the (causative) variables are increasing rather than decreasing with the development of cognitive psychology. Gregg (in press) contends that this is because these variables are not truly causative. Thus, finding a limited number of causative variables affecting L2 acquisition should be the major goal of L2 acquisition researchers in general and of L2 acquisition researchers oriented in cognitive psychology in particular.

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The idea that UG is not accessible in adult L2 acquisition and that adult L2 learners' knowledge of the L1 resolves the logical problem of adult language acquisition raises, in turn, the following question: How can adult L2 learners' acquisition of the knowledge of UG which cannot be reconstructed via the L1 be explained? In many studies, adult L2 learners do show knowledge of UG which cannot be reconstructed via the L1 probablistically, that is, at a level above chance (Johnson, 1993; Johnson & Newport, 1991). The probablistic knowledge of UG acquired by adult L2 learners, in this circumstance, may result from restructuring where information already acquired is reorganized (McLaughlin, 1990). One of the reasons for attributing the theory of parameter-setting to child language acquisition comes from children's limited cognitive ability to interpret and analyze abstract linguistic knowledge. Adult L2 learners, however, do have well-developed cognitive abilities to interpret and analyze linguistic input during which restructuring may occur.

Language Learning Strategies

Language learning principles are responsible for resolving the developmental problem of child language acquisition. If language learning principles are not accessible to adult language learners, how can the process of adult L2 acquisition be explained? Since language learning principles, which are automatic, are not accessible to adult L2 learners, adult L2 learners need to rely on language learning strategies, which are intentional, to compensate for the deterioration of language learning principles. In this sense, language learning strategies are responsible for the developmental problem of adult L2 acquisition.

Learning strategies are defined as specific behaviors and thought processes used by the learner to facilitate acquisition, storage, or retrieval of information (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). This definition implies three critical roles of language learning strategies in adult L2 acquisition: inviting input, facilitating input processing, and producing output. Since much adult L2 acquisition occurs inductively, which is data-driven, inviting more and better input is critical in adult L2 acquisition. In addition, producing output provides adult L2 learners with opportunities to test hypotheses, during which restructuring occurs, and to invite negative input from more advanced learners. In terms of facilitating input processing, let's turn to the research in general learning strategies, in that the ideas of language learning strategies come from those of general learning strategies.

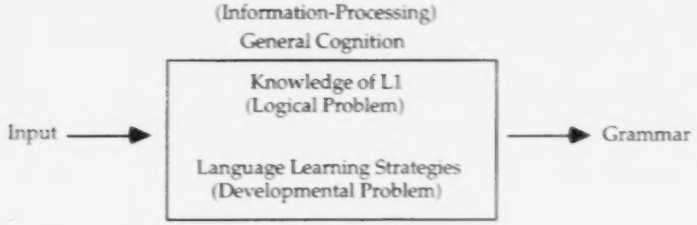
Weinstein and Mayer (1986) contend that learning strategy use facilitates processing new information (input) by influencing cognitive and affective domains during the encoding process. The encoding process falls into the following four stages: selection, acquisition, construction, and integration. Through selection, learners pay attention to specific information and transfer this information into working memory. In acquisition, learners transfer information from working memory to long-term memory. In the stage of construction, learners actively build internal connections between ideas in the information that has reached working memory. In the final stage of integration, learners actively look for prior knowledge in long-term memory and transfer this knowledge to working memory.

Whether language learning strategies are causative variables in adult L2 acquisition has not been verified yet. However, many studies have shown that language learning strategies are related to adult L2 proficiency/achievement (Park, under review; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Ramirez, 1986; Bialystok, 1981; see also

O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Thus, adult L2 acquisition, at least partly, may depend on how strategic adult L2 learners are in language learning tasks. Adult L2 learners, compared to child language learners, show variable degrees of attainment in L2 acquisition, and part of this variable attainment may be determined by quantitative as well as qualitative use of language learning strategies.

In sum, compared to child language acquisition which is explained by parameter-setting in language-specific cognition, adult language acquisition is explained by information-processing in general cognition which mainly consists of knowledge of the L1 and language learning strategies. Knowledge of the L1 resolves the logical problem, and language learning strategies take charge of the developmental problem of adult language acquisition. Thus, adult language acquisition can be schematized as Figure 2.

Figure 2. Adult Language Acquisition



THE COMPENSATION MODEL

The Compensation Model explains the difference between child and adult language acquisition in terms of two different cognitive modules and theories operating between childhood and adulthood. This model states that child language acquisition is explained by parameter-setting in language-specific cognition which consists of knowledge of UG and language learning principles, and that adult language acquisition is explained by information-processing in general cognition which consists of knowledge of the L1 and language learning strategies. The explanatory goals of this model are the logical and developmental problems of child and adult language acquisition. In this model, the logical problem of language acquisition is explained by knowledge of UG in children and by knowledge of the L1 in adults, and the developmental problem of language acquisition is explained by language learning principles in children and by language learning strategies in adults.

The change of cognition from language-specific to general is caused by the deterioration of language-specific cognition with age. In other words, if language-specific cognition kept functioning in adult language acquisition, there would be no need to compensate for it, nor would compensation occur. Much compensation is understood to occur during adolescence gradually rather than catastrophically. Even though the gradual deterioration of language-specific cognition occurs in all human beings, there is room for individual differences in terms of onset, speed, and end point. In the compensation model, knowledge of L1 compensates for knowledge of UG, and language learning strategies compensate for the language learning principles.

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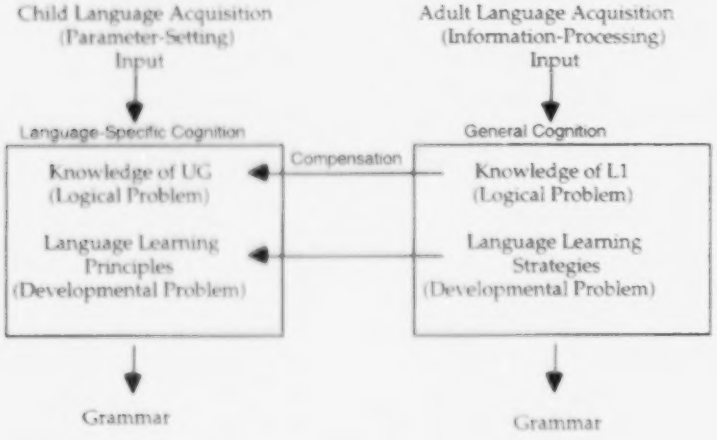
The change of cognition from language-specific to general leads, in turn, to the change of language acquisition theories between childhood and adulthood from parameter-setting to information-processing. This change from parameter-setting to information-processing is caused by the deterioration of language learning principles rather than the deterioration of UG. This is because much of the knowledge accessible through UG can be reconstructed via knowledge of the L1 in adult language acquisition. However, there are no language learning principles which can function as mechanisms to interpret and analyze input in adult language acquisition. This lack of principles which can serve as language learning mechanisms in adult language acquisition blocks parameter-setting, leading adult language learners to rely on information-processing in language acquisition. Thus, adult language learners need to use language learning strategies mainly to facilitate information (input) processing. *The Compensation Model* is presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3. The Compensation Model



CONCLUSION

This paper has proposed *The Compensation Model*. The proposal of this model was stimulated by *The Competition Model* (Felix, 1985) and *The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis* (Bley-Vroman,1989). The main difference between *The Compensation Model* and *The Competition Model* is in the logical problem of adult language acquisition. That is, UG is not accessible in adult language acquisition in *The Compensation Model*, but UG is still accessible in adult language acquisition in *The Competition Model*. The difference between *The Compensation Model* and *The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis* is in the developmental problem of adult language acquisition. That is, language learning strategies take charge of the developmental problem of adult language acquisition in *The Compensation Model*, but general problem-solving systems take charge of the

developmental problem of adult language acquisition in *The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis*.

Even though L2 acquisition researchers and theoreticians have tried in vain to develop a unified theory of L2 acquisition, the development of an L2 acquisition theory is not deadlocked yet. Considering the history of L2 acquisition research, it has taken long strides, say, from a zero state to a usable state. As Christians find God in faith, if L2 acquisition researchers try to develop a theory of L2 acquisition in faith, developing it may not be far off. There is a pressing need to develop a unified theory of L2 acquisition for the domain of L2 acquisition to be considered a mature science.

Even though *The Compensation Model* may prove to be wrong and remains to be verified, it will certainly contribute to a better understanding of L2 acquisition phenomena from childhood to adulthood and to the development of a unified theory of L2 acquisition.

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